Quantum Computing Hamiltonian cycles.

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Abstract

An algorithm for quantum computing Hamiltonian cycles of simple, cubic, bipartite graphs is discussed. It is shown that it is possible to evolve a quantum computer into an entanglement of states which map onto the set of all possible paths initiating from a chosen vertex, and furthermore to subsequently project out all states not corresponding to Hamiltonian cycles.

A Hamiltonian cycle is a path on a graph which visits each vertx 1..n exactly once, returning to the original vertex in the final step. Here we will discuss only simple (without loops or multiple edges), cubic (each vertex has only 3 edges), bipartite (each black vertex is connected only to white vertices) planar graphs. Such a graph is shown in Figure 1(a), with a Hamiltonian cycle indicated by the darker edges.

Classically no efficient algorithm exists to resolve the question of whether any given such graph has a Hamiltonian cycle, although over the years many results in Graph Theory have isolated certain special cases. The fundamentals of Graph Theory and many associated classical algorithms are well explained in [1], and a comprehensive exposition of Hamiltonian cycles and the related Travelling Salesman Problem can be found in [2]. A good summary of quantum computing can be found in [3].

We shall see that the added power afforded us by a quantum computer's ability to carry through parallel computations in a single step enables us to compute all possible paths on a given graph. To achieve this we require n registers each composed of n qubits, each qubit corresponding to one vertex.

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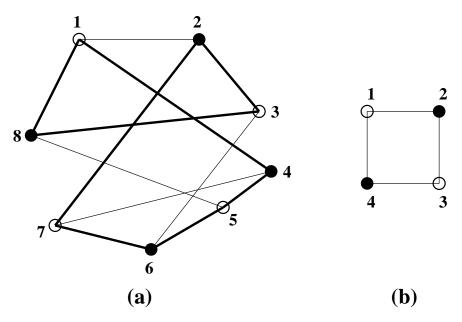


Figure 1: (a) A cubic, bipartite graph with Hamiltonian cycle in bold. (b)A simple 2-regular bipartite graph.

Three qubits of the first register, denoted α , are involved in every step of the algorithm. The other n-1 registers contain qubits which in the main are in the state $|0\rangle$, except for the qubit corresponding to the walkers current position.

To clarify the concepts consider the trivial but illustrative case of the square in Figure 1(b). We imagine a walker starting at vertex 1 and so prepare our quantum computer with register α in the state $|1,0,0,0\rangle_{\alpha}$, register 1 in the state $|1,0,0,0\rangle_{1} \equiv |1\rangle_{1}$ and the remaining registers empty. We envisage a controlled unitary operation R_{i}^{j} for the jth step from vertex i. R_{i}^{j} is conditioned on the ith qubit in register j being in the state 1. It acts onthe 2 qubits in registers α and j+1 which correspond to vertices adjacent to i. In a series of three steps we wish the initial state $|1,0,0,0\rangle_{\alpha}|1\rangle_{1}$ to evolve as follows (empty registers not shown and register labelling dropped),

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\begin{array}{lll} R_1^1: & \{|1,1,0,0\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle; \; |1,0,1,0\rangle|1\rangle|3\rangle\} \\ R_2^2 R_4^2: & \{|0,1,0,0\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle|1\rangle; \; |1,1,1,0\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle|3\rangle; \; |0,0,0,1\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle|1\rangle; \\ & & |1,0,1,1\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle|3\rangle\} \\ R_1^3 R_3^3: & \{|0,0,0,0\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle; \; |0,1,0,1\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle; \; |1,0,1,0\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle|3\rangle|2\rangle; \\ & & |0,0,0,0\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle; \; |0,1,0,1\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle; \; |1,0,1,0\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle|3\rangle|4\rangle; \\ & & |1,1,1,1\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle|3\rangle|4\rangle; \; |1,1,1,1\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle|3\rangle|2\rangle\}. \end{array}
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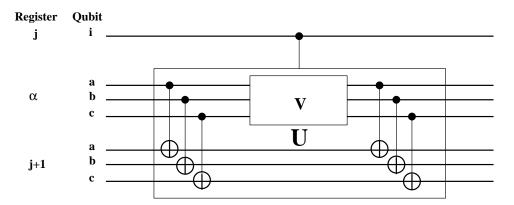


Figure 2: A schematic showing a suitable form of operator U_i^j , where a, b, c label the three vertices adjacent to i in the graph being considered.

The $\{\}$'s denote a superposition of those states enclosed (ignoring normalisation and phases for the moment). We see that only those paths which are possibly Hamiltonian cycles in the next step contain all 1's in register α . This is because stepping back to an already passed vertex changes a pre-existing 1 at that site to a 0. Thus projecting out this state of register α will leave the quantum computer in an entanglement of states which correspond to the graph's Hamiltonian cycles, if they exist.

To progress to the slightly harder problem of cubic graphs we need to be more specific about the form of the unitary transform U_i^j required. It will act on 6 qubits, and also be conditioned on qubit i in register j being 1. It will apply elementary NOT type operations to the 3 qubits a,b,c in register α which label the vertices adjacent to i, and write 1's into the same sites in the (previously empty) register j+1 similarly to that discussed above. A schematic of such a transform is shown in Figure 2, using a version of Feynman's [4] notation developed in [5]. The \oplus is the elementary (1 bit) NOT operation given by the matrix $\binom{10}{01}$. Time progresses from left to right. The 3 qubit transformation V is given in the lexicographically ordered basis $|0,0,0\rangle$; $|0,0,1\rangle,...|1,1,1\rangle$ by the matrix

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix}
0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 & 0 \\
0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\
0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\
0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0
\end{pmatrix}.$$
(1)

As an example of how the computation would proceed, consider again Fig-

ure 1(a). A first application of U_1^1 would evolve the initial state $|1,0..0\rangle$ into the superposition $\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}(|1,1,0..0\rangle|1\rangle|2\rangle + |1,0,0,1,..0\rangle|1\rangle|4\rangle + |1,0..1\rangle|1\rangle|8\rangle)$. Subsequently we would apply $R_2^2R_4^2R_8^2 \equiv R_{2,4,8}^2$ followed by $R_{1,3,5,7}^3$, then $R_{2,4,6,8}^4$ and so on until we finally apply $R^71,3,5,7$. Projecting out those states which contain all 1's in register α will leave the computer in a superposition of states which map onto Hamiltonian cycles. A final measurement will reveal one of those cycles, should they exist for the particular graph under consideration.

It is easy to see that in general we require $O(n^2)$ applications of U_i^j . This is obviously impractical with present technology. However algorithms such as the one above help us understand what quantum computers are capable of in principle and are therefore important in understanding the relation between quantum and classical complexity classes.

References

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